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The School and the Sword

WAR is too important to be left to the generals, the French claimed. Today peace is too important to be left without them. A sharp distinction between military and political affairs has been traditional in American life, but in the past few years the military have been forced to participate with increasing frequency and depth in the formulation of national policies. At almost every level, professional military men now find themselves dealing with a range of non-military matters far beyond their conventional duties.

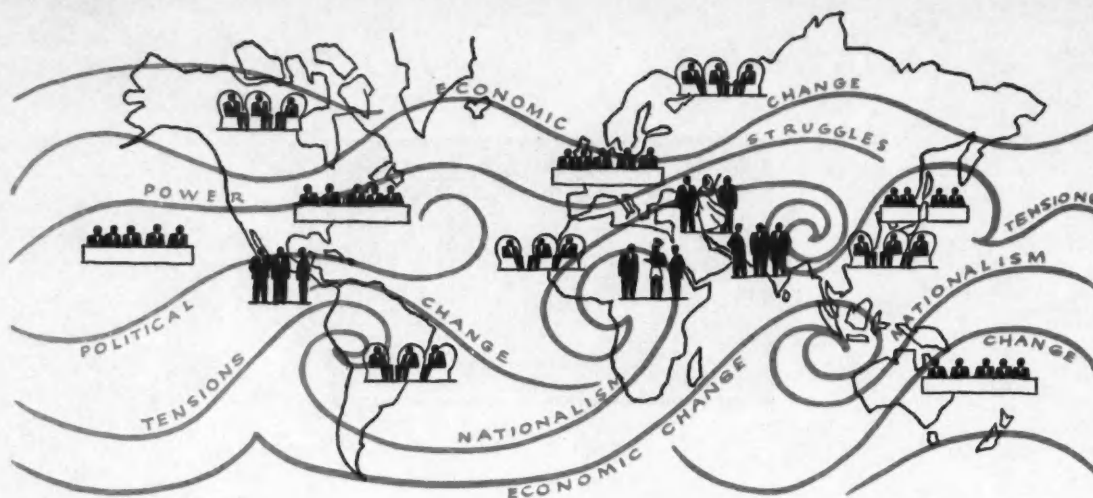
What impact this situation has had—and perhaps should have—upon professional military education is the subject of a book published last month by Princeton University Press. *Soldiers and Scholars: Military Education and National Policy* is the result of a long study conducted by John W. Masland and Laurence I. Radway, of

Dartmouth College's department of government, under a Carnegie grant to Dartmouth. The authors investigated at first hand the programs of many institutions of military education—not just those few whose names have a familiar and almost romantic ring to the ears of most Americans. They also used hundreds of interviews and questionnaires. *Soldiers and Scholars* describes the variety of military responsibilities today, the growth of education for policy roles, the content of that education, and its relation to the overall duties of the armed forces.

A few facts help to illustrate the speed with which the military have been catapulted into wide policy-making roles. By implication, they also illustrate the unprecedented demands which have been made on an educational system originally devised in another climate and for other, more narrow, purposes.

Prior to World War II, the authors point out, most career officers spent their lives in traditional military assignments. They had few interagency, intergovernmental, or even interservice contacts. The whole military corps was small; as late





as 1935 the Army had only 125,000 men. Largely isolated by an American people historically indifferent to or suspicious of the military, career men received from the United States very little in the way of attention, social status, or money. As an anti-militaristic nation the U.S. allowed only a minimum of military planning, let alone any broader kind of policy-making, to its officer corps. "War planning before 1917 was a highly suspect activity," as Masland and Radway point out, "and such plans as managed to escape Congressional censure were largely defensive in nature."

"Loyalty, Precedent . . ."

In earlier days military service thus placed primary value on "loyalty, precedent, specific technical skill, and a gentlemanly code of conduct. Officers' duties were limited. . . ." In this atmosphere West Point and Annapolis inaugurated their programs and traditions; this atmosphere inevitably was reflected in their aims, curricula, and methods.

A changing world changed, and increased, the demands made of military officers, and the academies and various intermediate and senior military schools have had to adapt their educational programs accordingly. The year 1955 graphically illustrates the nature of these demands. It found thousands of American officers in Europe wrestling with problems of German rearmament and participation in NATO; other thousands in East Asia trying to resolve the armistice situation in Korea; others scattered in 35 foreign countries participating in military missions or as military advisers to civilian administrators; some in

New York advising the U.S. Mission to the United Nations. As Masland and Radway say, one key development of the postwar decade was the establishment of the idea of "national security as a function that encompassed the responsibilities of both military and nonmilitary agencies, and that thereby converted the military into partners in an enterprise greater than their own."

The responsibility for producing career officers who will serve as fit partners in this great enterprise begins, of course, in the three academies (West Point, Annapolis, and the new Air Force Academy) and to a lesser extent in the ROTC programs in civilian universities. The academy programs are less technical and professional than many people might think, offering substantial work in the humanities and social sciences. Their primary objective, however, is to produce competent line officers. This is generally true also of the intermediate military schools. The main burden of providing education for broad policy roles rests on the war colleges.

The War Colleges

These—the National, the Industrial, and the three service War Colleges—"stand at the summit of professional military education" and are at the center of the Masland-Radway study. Although they all differ from one another in many ways—differences which are thoroughly explored in *Soldiers and Scholars*—certain principles and practices are basic to all of them.

In the first place, they are unlike other conventional institutions of higher learning. Their students are mature men (most of them in their 40's) who

have already carried heavy responsibilities, and many of them are destined to occupy positions of the highest rank and authority. The war colleges are designed for a specific function. They are, as one observer says, "well-organized instrumentalities for conducting a large-scale, complex, year-long seminar on problems of national security and national defense."

Take as an example the National War College, which is under the authority of the Joint Chiefs of Staff and whose students are officers from the three services as well as a limited number of civilians from various Washington agencies. The College offers a single course of study, lasting ten months, in which all students participate as a group, regardless of differences of education or experience. Since 1954 the curriculum has been presented in a form familiar to all military personnel: a "staff problem." It is, the authors point out, as if the students were the staff of the National Security Council and were directed to prepare a basic security strategy for the United States.

The World Situation

The opening sessions are given to a description and analysis of the present world situation. The class moves on to consider the causes and nature of tension and conflict; the component elements of national power, including political, economic, sociological, military, scientific, and geographic factors; the methods states use to implement their objectives, including persuasion, coercion, and military action. Included are area studies of the free world allies and associates, the Communist bloc, and the uncommitted areas.

Then the students, organized as separate committees, prepare their own estimates of the world situation, focusing attention on the relative strengths and weaknesses of the two great power blocs. Finally, again organized as committees, they prepare national security policies, with supporting subsidiary policies in the military, political, and economic fields—for both the United States and the Soviet Union.

In making their studies the students have the bene-

fit of excellent libraries and other facilities, extensive reading lists, and other aids. The lecture programs, according to Masland and Radway, are unequaled anywhere. "Probably no other institutions can command the services of so many of the individuals who appear regularly on the platforms of these colleges."

On the basis of their long and detailed inspection of military education (the book is more than 500 pages long) Masland and Radway conclude that military education does make a "very substantial contribution to the preparation of officers for policy roles." They believe the preparation "does enhance an officer's ability to grasp large, complicated situations and to adapt creatively to changing circumstances."

At the same time, the authors believe, military education could and should be better. They cite some weaknesses which are common to many civilian institutions as well. They believe that perhaps the most serious limitation upon military education is a tendency toward conformity. There are also signs of service parochialism. In addition, many officers tend to confuse "training" with education. This often results in excessively rigid and standardized curricula, and preoccupation with form and technique rather than content and purpose. This same factor leads to a stressing of quantity rather than quality.

Masland and Radway believe that the President should establish a special commission on the education of American military officers. Because they feel that the services emphasize their own schools to the detriment of joint institutions—a serious situation when the broadest possible approach to security planning is essential—they propose that the commission pay principal attention to the problems of joint military education. It also should push for acceptance of other reforms designed to eliminate the weaknesses discussed above.

If such a commission could accomplish these purposes, military education could take even longer strides toward developing officers capable of "creative military service under civilian leadership in a democratic society."



AIDING THE LIBERAL ARTS

Carnegie Corporation has long felt a special concern for undergraduate liberal education. It has looked for opportunities to provide energetic and imaginative administrators and professors with the support necessary to inaugurate promising courses, revisions of curricula, or new teaching methods. Since 1954 the trustees have allocated \$2 million specifically for such programs. Twenty-one colleges and universities have so far received grants, most of them quite modest: Antioch College, Earlham College, Haverford College, Hobart and William Smith Colleges,

Lawrence College, Mills College, Mount Holyoke College, Northwestern University, Oberlin College, Occidental College, Pomona College, Reed College, Rensselaer Polytechnic Institute, Sarah Lawrence College, St. Francis Xavier College for Women, Scripps College, Stanford University, Temple University, Tuskegee Institute, University of Massachusetts, and the University of New Hampshire. On this and the following pages are brief descriptions of four of these Carnegie-supported programs directed toward the improvement of undergraduate liberal education.

Sophomores and Liberal Arts

TEN years ago Lawrence College, in Wisconsin, discarded its traditional Freshman English course. In its place it substituted a reading, discussion, and composition course designed to introduce freshmen to the three great areas of liberal studies: the humanities, the natural sciences, and the social sciences. At the beginning of this academic year Lawrence introduced, in its first major curriculum change in a decade, special sophomore courses which are a logical continuation of these freshman studies.

With a bird's-eye view of the three areas gained in the freshman year, selected sophomores choose one of these in which to concentrate before going on to elect a major in the junior year. Only 45 are invited to take the new courses given by 12 faculty members. This opportunity for sophomores to explore in depth as well as breadth is good preparation, Lawrence believes, for the special junior and senior honors programs to follow.

During this year, the first of a five-year program being supported by Carnegie Corporation, those sophomores who chose a course in the humane letters are studying the arts in the Renaissance. They study selections from English and Continental literature, painting, architecture, and music, and follow this by discussing the

critical principles underlying and relating the arts.

In the first semester of this year students in the social sciences made an intensive study of the rise of the city; this semester they are concerned with decision-making in urban society.

In the natural sciences and mathematics, sophomores study a limited number of problems which illustrate scientific theory and method. The physics section, for example, concentrates entirely upon the velocity of light; in biology, intensive study is made of protozoa.

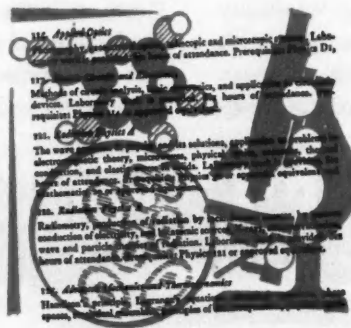
Sophomores and Sciences

NEW ways of teaching sophomore mathematics and introductory biology have been developed at Haverford College under a Carnegie grant.

The sophomore mathematics course is designed to follow logically on a pioneering approach to the teaching

of freshman math which Haverford had made previously. Staff members had extensive talks with ranking mathematicians and social scientists, and held conferences with several professional organizations concerned with the field. The aim was to decide what should be included in a second-year mathematics course which, although primarily a terminal one for liberal arts students, could also serve as sound preparation for those wanting to go on to further work. New classroom materials were prepared, and last year a group of Haverford students participated in a "pilot" section using them.

For the biology department, Haverford has outfitted a new laboratory containing the equipment essential for elementary instruction in the physical and chemical basis for life. Haverford sought the advice of eminent biologists, physiologists, and biochemists, who agreed on the need for a whole new approach to laboratory teaching at this level. Many of them made imaginative suggestions for dealing with such subjects as cell structure and processes, and structural proteins. A Haverford staff member developed a manual of experiments based on these ideas, and a new course is being tried this year. Although it is an introductory course, students work with equipment ordinarily reserved for seniors or graduate students, and instructors report that most of the young



students "sense the maturity expected of them and make a real effort to rise to the occasion."

Seniors and Values

MANY American college catalogs today list courses which had no counterparts on most campuses a few years ago. Lumped together by the irreverent under the general moniker of "crisis courses," these new additions to the curricula may be known on one campus as "great issues," on another as "seminar on values," on another as "the modern cultural crisis." They are all different from one another, but each has the same general purpose: to give students the chance to examine for themselves fundamental moral, social, and spiritual problems. In a sense, perhaps, they are a modern version of the old American college course in moral philosophy which was often taught by the college president as the capstone of the undergraduate's experience.

Reed College's senior symposia, supported for five of their seven years by Carnegie funds, actually grew out of students' expressed worries about the effects of increased specialization. Today these symposia draw more than one-third of Reed's senior class on a voluntary basis; perhaps significantly, the natural sciences are represented by more students than are any other fields.

A typical seminar meets once a week for about three hours and is led by two faculty members, for example a historian and a chemist. The class might include one physicist, two chemists, one biologist, one psychologist, one philosophy major, one economist, two literature majors, and a historian. The members of this group read, and then discuss, the works of novelists such as Camus, Melville, and Dostoevski; philosophers Kierkegaard, Russell, and Bacon; psychologists Fromm and Freud; economists Schumpeter and

Simons. The writings illuminate basic problems—those of freedom and order, of man's position as an individual in relation to his fellow men. These are critical issues which require an understanding of values.

Instructors at Reed find that works of literature, such as novels and plays, provoke more active and searching discussions than philosophical or scientific treatises. The students have increasingly responded more seriously to the dilemmas of the individual than to general issues, such as social or economic planning, the distribution of power, and so on. They are concerned with the psychological, moral, and religious ways of analyzing and attempting to resolve these dilemmas. To establish a list of readings that have proved useful, changes are made yearly. Books are added to or dropped from the list, and are read in different sequence.

An outside consultant commented that the symposia give Reed upperclassmen the opportunity "to get together in 'humane' surroundings to talk about 'humane' topics." And he went on to say: "This can be one of the great contributions of a liberal education today—the establishing of interrelationships between people, ideas, and data derived from different fields."

Seniors and Synthesis

WEBSTER's first definition of the word "synthesis" is: "Composition or combination of parts, elements,

etc., so as to form a whole." No reasonable person would expect a college senior, or anyone else, to be able to combine the parts and elements of many separate fields of knowledge into a perfect whole. It is important to make the effort, however, and a growing number of colleges are giving their students the chance to try.

Mount Holyoke College, for example, has worked out two new course plans which it is now offering, with support of a Carnegie grant, to seniors. Under one of the plans, girls majoring in various subjects meet to discuss one problem which bears on all their fields. Under the second, students from one department, or perhaps two or three closely related departments, try to define the nature of the relationships between remote fields of knowledge by considering ideas which pertain to all fields.

An example of a course under the first plan is one being offered this year: *Atomic Energy: Its Uses and Implications for Society*. Seniors with majors in chemistry, physics, political science, economics, and sociology are studying the scientific principles involved in the production of atomic energy; how societies have responded to earlier revolutionary innovations; existing governmental machinery for regulating atomic energy; and what its implications are for economic development, democracy, and social well-being.

The Idea of Progress is representative of a course under the second plan. Science majors are studying the idea of progress as it appears in selected works in literature, philosophy, and science.

Mount Holyoke's faculty believes that the new courses will give each senior an opportunity to "reconsider her fundamental assumptions, to clarify the relationship of her knowledge to more general ideas, and to explore some other fields which will enable her to leave college with greater tolerance and deeper understanding, better equipped for responsible citizenship."



Man with an Idea

ON a hill in the South of France, surrounded on three sides by 200-foot, red and yellow sandstone cliffs, perches the red-housed village of Peyrane, 1954 population 713. Peyrane (the fictitious name of a very real village) is so picturesque that the French Government has designated it a "national monument." Though inconvenient to reach, it is visited occasionally by tourists and painters. But they "have little more effect on the people of Peyrane than a passenger liner has on life at the bottom of the sea. The real distinction of Peyrane is to be found not in its red cliffs but in the lives of the people who live in the town above the cliffs."

Village in the Vaucluse

The lives of those people have been faithfully and minutely described by Lawrence Wylie in *Village in the Vaucluse*, published recently by Harvard University Press. Mr. Wylie is chairman of the romance languages department of Haverford College. Several years ago he, his wife, and their three- and five-year-old sons spent a full year in the little Provençal town, under a Social Science Research Council fellowship financed by Carnegie Corporation. The Wylies rented a house—first-class by Peyrane standards, deplorably uncomfortable from the standpoint of heating and plumbing by American—in a strategic location in the village, and from there went forth to observe, and participate in, community life.

Peyrane, as seen through Mr. Wylie's loving but honest eyes, seems an outpost of sanity and decent living in a mad world—which is indeed the way the Peyranais views the world. No one in the village is rich; there is no misery either. Crime is almost unknown; alco-

hol is consumed by everyone, but there is almost no drunkenness. Children are wanted and loved. The people of Peyrane work hard; they accept responsibility. They are realists who think it important to "see things as they are," and they readily acknowledge unpleasant as well as pleasant aspects of existence. Along with these provincial virtues go, naturally, many of the provincial weaknesses. The Peyranais tends to lack imagination and to be parochial in his outlook.

Life in Peyrane is centered around the family, which is a strong and healthy organism. Outside his family, the Peyranais is stimulated, either strongly positively or strongly negatively as a rule, by other individuals. People are almost always either *brouillé* or *bien* with other people.

To be *brouillé* with someone is to have quarrelled with him, to have fallen out. Feuds sometimes go on for years; four of the most prominent men in Peyrane have been *brouillé* with each other for many years. Two of them recently patched up their differences, because, someone maliciously said, together they could do more damage to the other two with whom they are *brouillé* than they could singly. A *brouille*, which may exist for any of a number of reasons, starts off with severe tongue-lashings. Even children are taught that they may not strike their playmates, but may quarrel longly, loudly, and colorfully with them. The insult is the weapon of aggression. When the Peyranais runs out of insults (which does not happen in a hurry) he then "cuts the other person dead" for days, weeks, or months. The *brouille* ends, if it ends, with a handshake.

People who are *bien* with others, on the other hand, are very friendly. They take aperitifs together, entertain

each other's families, and side with each other in whatever *brouilles* may develop.

However they may or may not get on together, the people of Peyrane as a unit seem permanently *brouillé* with the rest of the world as a whole and with their government in particular. Their attitude of distrust toward *les autres*, and their feelings of impotence before government, go a long way toward explaining what seems to some their bizarre political behavior. In the election of 1956, one-quarter of Peyrane's citizens did not vote, one-quarter voted Poujadist, one-quarter voted Communist, and one-quarter voted for moderate candidates.

Peyrane and Politics

"Logically," as Mr. Wylie points out, "one might conclude that revolution seethes in Peyrane since only one-fourth of the adults support the Fourth Republic, while three-fourths of them are either indifferent to it or favor its destruction." The reverse is true, says Mr. Wylie. Peyrane is profoundly conservative, and the voters do not mean that they want to change the order of things but that they want to be left alone so they will not have to change. The Peyranais uses the ballot as "an insult to organized power." And the person who does not vote pretends to ignore the government as he pretends to ignore a person with whom he is *brouillé*. "He symbolically assassinates it."

Village in the Vaucluse is warmhearted without being sentimental. It leaves the reader with feelings of respect and wry affection for the humorous and honest people of Peyrane. Mr. Wylie's happy combination of language competence, scholarly breadth, and keen observation have given us a study which is a welcome corrective to some of the oversimplified views of French culture and stands as an example of humanistic study in the best and broadest sense of that term.

Strengthening Family Ties

IT IS no secret that the large academic family has been rent for a number of years by quarrels between two of its most important members. The "educationists," representing the teachers colleges and schools of education, and the "liberal artists" have generally displayed marked suspicion and resentment toward one another. Their differences, which center on the question of exactly what constitutes the proper kind of education for teachers, have been widely and colorfully advertised by charges and counter-charges hurled from public platforms and through the otherwise sedate pages of the academic journals.

While the general picture may appear to be one of steady fightin' and feudin', actually many efforts are being made by both sides to substitute understanding for antagonism, cooperation for fruitless recrimination. A recent meeting at Princeton, underwritten by Carnegie Corporation, is an example of such an effort.

Brought together by the American Council on Education's Council on Cooperation in Teacher Education, some 40 participants, including liberal arts graduate and undergraduate deans, education school deans, high school teachers, and state directors of certification, gathered for a two-day conference on the preparation of secondary school teachers. Their discussions—adding up to more than 300 pages in verbatim records—did not purport to solve for all time some of the very real differences in educational philosophy which divide the two groups. They did, however, give each "side" some understanding of the problems and objectives of the other. And they did go to the heart of many of the questions which must be asked, and answered, about who should teach future teachers what.

One question—the "who"—was answered with fairly general agreement. Most of the conferees seemed to believe that all colleges and universities should share the responsibility for preparing high school teachers, that the education of teachers should not be the prerogative of any one type of institution.

As might be expected, there was less agreement on the "what." Nevertheless the participants felt that a general education in the humanities, social sciences, and natural sciences is neces-



sary for all high school teachers. They claimed that every future teacher should have an undergraduate major in his particular teaching field. And it was agreed by most that high school teachers should have practice teaching, and study in philosophy, history, sociology, and psychology as they relate to education.

Some of the specific antagonisms which have split the two groups were discussed candidly. Many liberal arts representatives admitted the charges of educationists that some members of liberal arts college faculties tend to discourage able students from considering teaching as a career. In addition, most of them agreed that graduate schools of arts and science need to review their offerings to make available to high school teachers suitable courses in the subjects that they teach.

On the other hand, many of the educationists freely conceded the liberal arts people's claim that many courses in education are held in low repute for good reason. They acknowledged that often there is unnecessary duplication of material; that there are too many small departments of education whose faculties cannot be adequately prepared to teach the variety of courses offered; that there is a general shortage of qualified faculty in many areas.

Many suggestions were put forward as to what steps might be taken in the future. All of them implied a greater degree of cooperation than has hitherto existed between the two groups.

It was stressed that the colleges and faculties of liberal arts should join with teachers colleges and schools of education in advising state officers on appropriate requirements for certification. And liberal arts colleges, it was believed, whether or not they have programs of teacher preparation, should be encouraged to share responsibility for preparing high school teachers.

A number of the participants suggested that regional conferences might be organized to bring together high school teachers and administrators, representatives of liberal arts and teachers colleges, scientific institutions, and state education authorities. Such conferences might result in programs to influence the attitudes of faculties and student bodies, and encourage new programs of teacher preparation where they are inadequate or non-existent.

The Princeton conference is only one step on the long road to really fruitful cooperation among all the educators responsible for the education of our youth. But the spirit that animated it represents a big step when compared with the sniping that has marked many skirmishes in the past.

NEW GRANTS

Grants amounting to \$2,565,000 were voted by Carnegie Corporation trustees during the second quarter of this fiscal year, which began October 1, 1956.

The income for the fiscal year 1956-57 is now estimated at \$8,860,000. From this sum, \$2,265,000 has been set aside to meet commitments, including those for teachers' pensions, incurred in previous years.

It is the Corporation's policy to spend all income during the year in which it is received.

Included among the grants voted during the last quarter are those listed below:

United States

American Council on Education, to support conferences and small research projects, \$60,000.

American Institute for Research, for a study of the recruitment of graduate students, \$37,000.

University of Chicago, for further support of the Center for the Study of American Foreign Policy, \$142,500.

University of Chicago, toward expenses of a conference on the American high school, \$12,000.

Columbia University, for additional travel grants to enable Russian specialists in the United States to visit the U.S.S.R., \$100,000.

Dartmouth College, for a study of ROTC programs in American colleges and Universities, \$40,000.

Educational Testing Service, for a study of the feasibility of an expanded evaluation program for higher education, \$10,000.

Foundation Library Center, for further support, \$400,000.

University of Kansas, toward support of an undergraduate program for gifted students, \$36,500.

University of Louisville, to provide summer school scholarships for superior high school students, \$80,000.

University of Michigan, for further support of the Center for Japanese Studies, \$100,000.

Michigan State University, for a study of the overseas programs and relationships of American universities, \$268,400.

National Academy of Sciences-National Research Council, to support the work of the Advisory Board on Education, \$75,000.

National Council on Religion in Higher Education, for further support of fellowships, \$30,000.

University of Nebraska, for further support of a community education program, \$79,200.

Northwestern University, for research and training in international relations, \$250,000.

University of Pennsylvania, for further support of South Asian studies, \$85,000.

Pomona College, to establish divisional courses for seniors, \$100,000.

Rensselaer Polytechnic Institute, for revision of its general studies program, \$100,000.

University of Washington, for further support of research on Inner Asia, \$150,000.

Yale University, for further support of teaching and research in economic history, \$25,000.

Commonwealth

University of Hong Kong, for staff training, salaries, library development, and extension work, \$54,000.

Laval University, for support of educational research, \$115,000.

Many Commonwealth newspapers, following publication of the Corporation's annual report in January, carried articles about Carnegie policy with respect to future grants in the Commonwealth. These stories, and in particular the headlines covering them, are susceptible to misinterpretation by their readers.

Since 1912, it has been the Corporation's policy to set aside each year the income from a certain portion of its capital fund for use in the Commonwealth. In 1948, this portion was raised from \$10 million to \$12 million. Even during World War II, when it was not feasible to carry on a broad program overseas, the income was held in reserve for use there. In the years since the War this accumulated fund, which has now been exhausted, has been spent in the Commonwealth.

The Corporation will in the future, as it has in the past, set aside each year the income from \$12 million of its capital fund for appropriation in the Commonwealth.

CARNEGIE CORPORATION OF NEW YORK

589 FIFTH AVENUE NEW YORK 17 N. Y.

Carnegie Corporation of New York is a philanthropic foundation created by Andrew Carnegie in 1911 for the advancement and diffusion of knowledge and understanding. It has a basic endowment of \$135 million and its present assets, reckoned at cost value, are approximately \$183 million. The income from \$12 million of this fund may be used in certain British Commonwealth areas; all other income must be spent in the United States.

The Corporation has a continuing interest in improving higher education. Grants are made to colleges and universities, professional associations, and other educational organizations for specific programs. Such programs include basic research as well as more effective use of the results of research, increased understanding of international affairs, better preparation of teachers, and new teaching programs.

Detailed descriptions of the Corporation's activities are contained in its annual reports, which usually are published in December.

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